Biographical Sketches.

M. GUIZOT.

Francis Peter William Guizot was born at Nismes, a town in the department of Gard, and province of Languedoc, on the 4th of October 1787. His family had long been settlad in the south of France as respectable citizens of the middle rank, and in communion with the reformed church, of which Guizot himself is, and has always been a member. His father was an advocate of Nismes, a man of talent and eminence in his profession, and, as the anecdote we are about to quote will show, of humane and heroic temper. Like his brother Protestants, he had welcomed with joy the revolution of 1789, which relieved the French dissenters from all restrictions on the public exercise of their religion.—After the execution of the king, however, his zeal, with that of so many others, began to cool. When the Reign of Terror was nearly at its height, he saw himself one of the 'suspected,' and was forced to conceal himself, to avoid imprisonment and death. 'He was found,' says a trustworthy biographer of his son, 'in his hiding place by a gendarme; but this person regretting to have discovered him, and unwilling to have any share in his destruction, offered to let him escape. M. Guizot perceived that, to save his own life, he must compromise that of his merciful captor, and did not hesitate for an instant before relinquishing his only chance of preservation.' He was guillotined at Nismes on the 8th of April 1794, a few days after the execution at Paris of Danton and Camille Desmoulins. The young Guizot was then seven years of age. The sad spectacle of his father's death, as may be well supposed, produced a deep impression on his mind. We learn that it has never forsaken him; and perhaps it may in part account for that hatred of anything like revolutionary anarchy which he has manifesled through life.

Immediately after this fatal event, Madame Guizot removed with her two sons to Geneva, where her own relatives resided. She has been described as an excellent woman of the old school; religious, true-hearted, and energetic; bound up in the welfare and right education of her children. She was one day, we have somewhere read, found by a visitor with Guizot on her knee, to whom she was repeating stories from the lives of the great reformers. 'I am trying,' she said, 'to make my Frank a resolute and diligent boy.' At the age of twelve, Guizot was sent to the public school of Geneva; and here he proved that his mother's efforts had not been thrown away. Indeed so absorbing was the vigor with which he applied himself to whatever he had in hand, that he became the butt of his more mercurial companions, who delighted in teasing with all sorts of practical jokes the abstracted little student. Aided by perseverance, his talents produced, in four years only, results that seem almost incredible; at sixteen, we are told Guizot could read and enjoy in the originals, 'Thucydides and Demosthenes, Cicero and Tacitus, Dante and Alfieri, Schiller and Goethe, Gibbon and Shakespeare.' The two succeeding years were devoted to metaphysical studies, from which his mind, so eminently reflective, drew nourishment even more appropriate than that which it had found in the masterpieces of poetry and history. Finally, when he had gained the highest academical honors, it was thought by his mother and her friends that he could not but succeed in his father's profession. For a young man, too, of his gifts and accomplishments, they decided Paris was the only fitting sphere. Accordingly, towards the end of 1804, Madame Guizot returned one more to Nismes, whence, after a brief stay, Guizot himself proceeded, full of hope and ambition, to study law and push his fortunes in the French metropolis.

It was in 1805, the year after Napoleon's elevation to the imperial throne, that Guizot arrived in Paris. 'Poor and proud, austere and ambitious,' he saw himself in the midst of a brilliant, frivolous, and intriguing society, unfurnished, by his strict Genevese education, with the means of shining in such a world, and disinclined by nature to make the attempt. The Revolution, moreover, had destroyed, with so much else, the Paris law school, and Guizot was left, without a teacher, or any aid but that of books, to sound as he best might the mysterious depths of jurisprudence. The first twelvemonth of his stay in Paris was spent in solitary study; happily, during the next, he made the acquaintance of a M. Stopfer, the former representative of the Swiss republics, and with the connexion which sprang out of it, Guizot seems to have abandoned all thoughts of law as a profession. This gentleman was a person of worth and learning, deeply versed in German metaphysics, a subject on which he had more than once appeared before the world as an author. Beneath his roof, as perceptor to his children, Guizot resided during the years 1807-8. In Stopfer he found not only an employer, but a paternal friend; under his guidance he was enabled to master the philosophy of Kant, and he had leisure enough still remaining to recommence the study, and perfect his knowledge of the classical authors. Besides this, he procured him admission to the society he most coveted—that of literary men. Among those of this class to whom he introduced him, one was M. Suard; at his house Guizot became a constant and grateful visitor; here on a footing of perfect equality, he met the most distinguished members both of the old school and the new one, already beginning to displace it. In Suard's saloon might be seen in friendly converse Chateaubriand and the Abbe Moulfet, Madame de Fontane and the Chevalier de Boufflers.

Guizot, though at this time a silent and reserved young man, made such use of these opportunities, that when, in 1819, he ceased to reside with M. Stopfer, he could with safety—so far at least as regarded the certainty of employment—enter on the perilous career of the author by profession, who trusts to his pen alone for his support. He became a contributor to a number of the graver periodicals of the day.—His first book appeared in 1809 itself; it was a 'Dictionary of French Synonymes,' and in part a compilation; but he prefixed it to an original treatise on the philosophical character of the French language, 'that 'that displayed already,' says a critic, 'that genius for precision and method which to-day distinguishes M. Guizot.' This was followed in 1811 by a translation of Rehfus' work on Spain, and by an essay on the state of the fine arts in France, and the Paris art-exhibition of 1810. The same year he was appointed conductor of the 'Annals of Education,' a valuable periodical, which continued till 1815 to appear under his editorship. Guizot was beginning to rise in public estimation. Literature, indeed, could not then be said, even with less justice than at present, to be a source of wealth to its cultivators; but it brought him enough for his simple wants. Powerful friends were promising him their aid for the future; so prudence itself, he thought, no longer forbade him to complete his union with the gifted lady (first seen by him in the literary circle assembled at Suard's) to whom for several years he had been attached and engaged. The way in which their intimacy originated is probably known to but few of our readers; it is one of those romances of real life more surprising than any fiction. In this case the romance is not the less interesting to us from its being one of real literary life.

Pauline de Meulan was born in Paris in the year 1773, fourteen years earlier than her future husband. Her father, after having enjoyed for the greater part of his life the possession of a considerable fortune, saw it swept away by the Revolution, and dying in 1790, the year after its loss, left a widow and large family almost wholly unprovided for. Some time after Mademoiselle de Meulan had reached womanhood, it flitted one day across her mind that she too might perhaps possess some literary talent, and in this way contribute to the support of those she loved. The thought was immediately put into action; she began a novel, and, chaining herself to her desk for several weeks, at last saw it duly completed. Some old friends of her father found her a publisher. The book was successful; and, thus enlisted in the corps of authors, she became one of its most industrious members. A year or two afterwards, M. Suard established a journal called the Publicist. Mademoiselle de Meulan, now a practised writer, was appointed contributor-in-chief, and her light graceful female pen soon made the work exceedingly popular. At last, in the first months of 1807, she was seized with a dangerous illness, brought on or hastened by over-exertion. The malady was of such a kind that she could not continue her labors; yet for years the produce of her essays in the Publicist had been the sole resource of her mother and herself. In this painful situation she received one day by post an article written in happy imitation of her style and manner; it was accompanied by an anonymous letter, in which she was requested to set her mind at rest, as, until her health should be restored, a similar article would be forwarded to her for each future number of the Publicist. The offer was tacitly accepted, and the articles came with the utmost regularity. On her recovery, she mentioned the circumstance in M. Suard's saloon, little thinking that the pale taciturn young philosopher, who was listening calmly to her story, held the key of the mystery. Unable to discover her benefactor, she at last, in the Publicist itself, requested him to disclose his name. Guizot now acknowledged himself to be the unknown friend, and five years afterwards Mademoiselle de Meulan became his wife. They were married in the April of 1812; and though the lady was, as we have seen, fourteen years older than her husband, their union was the happiest possible. Madame Guizot is said, from the purity and severity of her moral nature, to have exerted a powerful influence on her husband's spiritual culture. In a humbler way than this too she was of great assistance to him. Thus the translation of Gibbon, which during the first year of their marriage, appeared under his auspices, and with his valuable notes, was revised and corrected by her; and she relieved him likewise in great part from the labor of editing the 'Annals of Education.'

The year 1812 was altogether a remarkable one in Guizot's hitherto tranquil career. In the course of it, his friends Baron Pasquier and M. de Fontanes attempted to introduce him to political life by soliciting for him the post of auditor to the imperial council of state. Muret, Duke of Bassans, to whom the application was made, directed him to draw up a state-paper as a specimen of his ability. The subject was to be an exchange, then talked of by Napoleon, between Great Britain and France of their respective prisoners of war. But the emperor, it was well known, was insincere in making the proposal, as he deemed the support of the French prisoners a burden to Great Britain, while he himself was, at the time, in no want of soldiers. A suspicion of this insincerity was too prominent in Guizot's performance; he did not seem a fit man for ministerial purposes, and the application remained without effect. M. de Fontanes procured him, however, the professorship of modern history in the Paris Faculty of Letters, afterwards the scene of some of his noblest triumphs. This situation brought him into contact with his colleague Royer-Collard, the well-known professor of philosophy, to whom Guizot in every way owes much. They formed a friendship which promised to be lasting, and, indeed it did last for a long period. Unhappily, after the revolution of July, it was dissolved by political differences.

In 1813 he was occupied with the duties of his chair; he published also his 'Lives of the French Poets during the age of Louis XIV.,' a first volume only, which has had no successor. In 1814, after so protracted a separation, he paid a visit to his mother at Nismes, and while there, the first restoration of the Bourbons occurred, an event with which Guizot's entry into public life begins. On returning to Paris, he was recommended by his friend Royer-Collard to the minister of the interior, the Abbe de Montesquiou, who appointed him his chief secretary, a subordinate, but, in Guizot's hands, and influential post. Along with Royer-Collard, he framed the severe law against the press, which was presented by M. de Montesquiou to the Chamber of 1814, and he was made one of the royal censors. When Napoleon came back from Elba, Guizot did not resign his situation; but he was, however, dismissed by Carnot, the new minister of the interior. This was in May 1815. A few days afterwards, when it was perceived that the great European powers would not treat with Napoleon, whose fall, sooner or later, was therefore inevitable, Guizot was despatched by the constitutional royalists to Ghent, where Louis XVIII., then resided, to plead with that monarch the cause of the charter, and point out the necessity of removing from his council M. de Blacas, the leader of the stiff-necked unyielding royalist of the old regime. His expedition was a successful one. On his return to France, after the battle of Waterloo, Louis XVIII., dismissed M. de Blacas, and promised, in the proclamation of Cambrai, a more faithful adherence to the charter. This is the origin of the epithet, 'Man of Ghent,' applied to Guizot by his political opponents, and with which every reader of newspapers is familiar.

During the first five years of the second restoration, Guizot filled, with little intermission, various semi-official posts of respectability indeed, but of slender importance.

In the February of 1820, the assassination of the Duke de Berri produced an anti-liberal reaction. The Decazes ministry was forced to resign, and with its fall Guizot lost the situation which had been created for him in the preceding year, of 'Director of the Municipal Administrations of France.' He now resumed the duties of his chair, which had meanwhile, we suppose, been performed by deputy, and endeavored to make up for the loss of his official income by renewed and strenuous literary labor. 'After the fall of M. Decazes,' says a writer in the Revue kes Deux Mondes, 'the interior of M. Guizot's house long presented a curious spectacle. His brother-in-law, M. Devaines, prefect of the Nievre, had been, like himself, deprived of his situation, and he returned to Paris with his wife and two nieces, one of whom M. Guizot afterwards married. On one side you saw Madame Guizot and her nieces sitting up, re-making and annotating Le Tourneur's translation of Shakspeare; on the other M. Guizot was busied with his researches into the history of France; further on, a few young men, docile pupils of the master, were ferreting, with the aid of a lexicon, in the barbarous Latin of Ordericus Vitalis; others were translating the Memoirs of Clarendon or the Eikon-Basilike of Charles I., laboriously erecting, stone by stone, the great edifice, the Collection of Memors relating to the English Revolution, which bears on its front the signature of M. Guizot.'

The fruits of this industry were speedily given to the world. In 1821 appeared a new edition of Rollin and Le Tourneur's now amended and annotated translation of Shakspeare; in both of which enterprises, though Guizot bore away the honor, his wife had the principal share. The researches mentioned in the passage just quoted, were for his lectures on the history of representative government in France, delivered during the winter of 1821-2. In 1822, an event took place which made him more dependent than ever on his literary exertions. He had found time, in the course of 1821, for the composition of a long political pamphlet, in which his favorite doctrine of liberty, in alliance with order, was powerfully and elaborately developed. The new ministry disliked his love of freedom, although it was united with a respect for established institutions. They feared, above all, his influence as a teacher on the rising generation, and accordingly suspended him from the functions of his professorship.

For several years after this occurrence Guizot remained a stranger to politics. His sensible and far-seeing turn of mind kept him from lending his aid to any of the thousand-and-one (sometimes very extensive) conspiracies which, while the Villele ministry remained in power, every day brought forth, though only to be crushed. He calmly waited till the time should come when he might with safety, and some prospect of success, take a part in public affairs. Meanwhile, historical studies, and the preparation of historical works, kept him constantly employed. In 1823 appeared his Essays on the History of France, and the first volumes of two grand collections of memoirs, one relating to the great English revolution, the other to the early history of France; these, as they were published serially, demanded his almost undivided attention for a considerable period. Yet his industry did not altogether hinder him from enjoying social life; and though he was poor, his visitors were not solely—strange as it may seem to an Englishman, from the ranks of the indigent and obscure. It is of the Guizot of that period that a writer in Fraser's Magazine thus speaks:—'Small were his apartments—far, far too small to admit the crowds of literati who sought to claim the honor of his acquaintance, or who, having made, were not willing to lose it. On his reception-nights, the small street at the back of the Madeleine in which he resided was crowded with carriages, as well as all the contiguous streets; and his visitors moved more quickly from one little room to another than they otherwise would have done, because they felt that they owed this act of courtesy to those who came pressing after them. If it had been the drawing-room of a young and beautiful queen, or the levee of a popular and distinguished cabinet minister, no anxiety to be admitted, to speak, to exchange looks, could have been more closely and strongly marked than on these occasions. Madame Guizot, and one or two female friends—often the late Duchess de Broglie, the Lady Peel of France—presided at a tea-table, where the simplest fare was distributed by pretty taper fingers, which even vied with bright eyes and enchanting smiles. Yet were those entertainments sumptuous with wit, with poetry, with philosophy, and with the best life of good society and of the elite of Paris. But death here also has intruded too frequently to permit me to think upon those once happy reunions; and the dear little house in the Rue de l'Evesque has witnessed tears and sobs, and agonies of grief, which none can portray, and which even few can feel.' This allusion is to Guizot's loss of the beloved companion both of his toils and his enjoyments, not long before that of their only child. Madame Guizot had been unwell during a considerable portion of 1826. With the new year, it was evident that she was slowly sinking. On the 20th July 1827, she perceived that her end was at hand; she summoned her son and her friends to her side, and bade them farewell—the former was soon to follow her to the tomb. On the morning of the next day she asked her husband to read to her; he took down a volume of Bossuet, and began the funeral oration of Henrietta Maria of England; when he had finished, he looked towards her, and saw that she was no more. We must now hurry on.

The year which was marked by this domestic calamity was also that of Guizot's return to politics. Perhaps his chief motive for this is to be found in the fact, that he was now forty years of age, and therefore qualified to enter the Chamber of Deputies. In 1828 he established the Revue Francaise, as an organ for the expression of his opinions, and he became an active member of the Aide-toi Society, then just formed, the objects and procedure of which were quite in accordance with his views. It was founded to protect the electoral system from the assaults of the Villele ministry. Nothing could be less revolutionary than the mode in which it sought its end, by appealing, namely, but with the cumulative force which is the great result of association, whenever the law was infringed, to the authorised legal tribunals. In January of 1828, the liberal ministry of M. de Martignac displaced that of Villele, and one of its first acts was to restore Guizot his chair. It was now, amid the enthusiastic plaudits of a brilliant audience, that he began his well-known lectures on the History of Modern Civilization in Europe. With the August of 1829, the Polignac ministry came into office; its subsequent history is familiar to our readers. Guizot threw himself energetically into opposition, attacking with his vigorous pen, in the columns of the Temps, and the Journal des Debats, the policy of that too famous administration. Chosen deputy by the electoral college of Lisieux in the January of 1830, he was among the protesting 221. He returned from Nismes to Paris on the 20th of July, to learn the publication of those ordinances which cost Charles X., a throne. On the 27th, at the meeting of deputies held at Casimir Perier's house, the protest drawn up by Guizot was the one agreed on to be signed. He was the author also of the address in which, on the 28th, the Duke of Orleans was invited to undertake the office of lieutenant general of the kingdom. On the last of the Three Days, it was Guizot that proposed the appointment of a commission to secure the maintenance of order. On the 30th, he was named by it provisional minister of public instruction; and at the accession of Louis-Philippe, he accepted the most important and difficult post of all, that of minister of the interior.

THE POLYNESIAN.

HONOLULU, SATURDAY, AUGUST 26.

Commerce of the World.—Commerce is a branch of enterprise which may be termed the main-spring of national prosperity; the foundation of national wealth. It has been truly said that 'the spirit of commerce is the spirit of peace, its interests the interests of peace, and peace is the element of all moral progress, as war is the element of all barbarism and desolation. Every ship that sails the ocean is a pledge of peace to the extent of its value—every sail a more appropriate symbol of peace than the olive branch itself.' The policy of the civilized world has become a commercial policy. Nations have ceased to base their importance upon the extent and power of their naval forces; but on the contrary, national importance is now measured by their mercantile exchanges and the tables of their imports and exports.

Commerce exercises a powerful influence in the diffusion of knowledge and civilization throughout the world. It is the band which binds together the various nations and gives them the appearance of one great family of brotherhood. Nothing tends more to give a nation a prominent position in the eyes of the world than the extension of her commerce. It brings with it a market for the various products of a country, offers rich rewards for enterprise and industry, establishes credit, confidence and mutuality of interest.

First among the commercial nations stands Great Britain. She possesses a commerce which encircles the whole globe. Her market is filled with the productions of every clime, and she gives in return the manufactured goods of her own kingdom. In 1843 the number of merchantmen under the English flag was estimated at 23,898, besides 900 steam vessels. In 1846 she had 24,016 vessels, employing 175,600 men.

Next on the list stands the United States; and ere many years shall elapse, she will assume the first position in regard to her commercial transactions. Her relative increase greatly exceeds that of any other nation, and no other nation on the earth possesses the vast internal commercial resources which she does. In 1846 she had distributed throughout various parts of the world, 19,720 merchant vessels, not including whalers, in which branch of business she had 725 vessels employed. In the whale fishery the United States stands unrivalled, and we believe she has more capital employed in the whaling interest than all the other nations combined. The amount of capital invested by the United States in this important branch of commerce is estimated at $20,000,000. The outfits of these vessels, consisting of stores, sails, rigging, &c., are principally the products of the American Republic. Thus they purchase the return cargo by their agricultural and mechanical labor, and draw treasures from the deep to supply their own wants and to contribute to the wealth of the nation. A market has always been found in Europe for the surplus of oil, bone, &c.

The commerce of France employs 13,782 vessels; Sweden, 5,450; Holland, 1,195; Russia employs about 239,000 tons in the foreign and coasting trade; the Two Sicilies have 9,174 vessels; and Austria, 6,199 vessels of various descriptions. Turkey has 2,220 vessels in the foreign and coasting trade. The kingdom of Sardinia, including Genoa and the island of Sardinia, possesses 3,282 vessels, which are employed in the foreign and coasting trade. Denmark has 3,036 vessels engaged in the foreign and coasting trade. Portugal has 798 vessels; and lastly, Spain possesses 2,700 vessels of every description, which are employed in the foreign and coasting trade.

The following table will show the amount of tonnage employed by each of these nations, comprising as they do, the principal maritime powers of the world:

Nations.	Tonnage.
Great Britain,	3,007,581
United States,	2,416,999
France,	839,608
Sweden and Norway,	471,772
Holland,	241,676
Russia,	230,000
Two Sicilies,	213,198
Austria,	208,551
Turkey,	183,000
Sardinia,	167,360
Denmark,	153,00
Portugal,	80,525
Spain,	80,000

Hitherto a great proportion of the commercial business has been confined to the Atlantic. During the last ten years, however, the commerce of the Pacific has increased with great rapidity. There is a large field for business operations on its waters, and we believe that in the course of a few years, the Pacific is destined to be a great theatre of commercial enterprise. Wherever there is a prospect of gain there will the adventurous feet of commerce thread their way.

☞ In the leading article of the Sandwich Island News of this week we find among other things the following charges prefered against various chiefs and officers of government:

'We understand from undoubted authority, that the Lands in Manoa Valley, sold to the natives in fee simple some year or more since, have all been taken back by the chiefs; that is, one of the chiefs high and forward in the ranks of civilization, and who fills a seat on the bench of the Superior Court of this Kingdom, was commissioned by the others to go and "bounce" the native land-holders out of their written deeds, which he fully succeeded in doing, notwithstanding the signatures of the King and the Premier were thereunto severally affixed. This we learn is absolutely true; and what is more, a person in the employ of the government, after he learned that we had got wind of the transaction, made us an offer of two hundred dollars if we would pass it over and say nothing about it; but poor as we are we shall not sell the right to speak our opinion upon any subject.'

Having made particular inquiries in regard to the foregoing assertions, we have only to say, that we will pay to the editor or editors of the Sandwich Island News, or to any person or persons who will prove said charges to be true, the sum of *two hundred dollars*.

For California.—During this week no less than three vessels have been dispatched for San Francisco; taking a 'few more of the same sort.' One man *started* in a whale boat, thinking, probably, that the 'gold region' was a magnet of sufficient attractive power to direct his course to *the* place.

Lie.—Lie in morals denotes a criminal breach of veracity. Archdeacon Paley, in treating of this subject, observes, that there are falsehoods which are not lies, that is, which are not criminal; and that there are lies which are not literally and directly false.

Cases of the first class are those where one is deceived; as for instance, in parables; fables, novels, jests, tales to create mirth, or ludicrous embellishments of a story, in which the declared design of the speaker is not to inform, but to divert; a prisoner pleading not guilty; an advocate asserting the justice, or his belief of the justice of his client's cause. In such instances no confidence is destroyed, because none was reposed; no promise to speak the truth is violated, because none was given or understood to be given. Second, where the person you speak to has no right to know the truth, or more properly, where little or no inconvenience results from the want of confidence in such cases; as where you tell a falsehood to a madman for his own advantage, to defeat or divert him from his purpose. It is upon this principle that by the laws of war, it is allowable to deceive an enemy by feints, false colors, spies, false intelligence, and the like; but by no means in treaties, truces, signals of capitulation, or surrender. The difference is that the former suppose hostilities to continue, whilst the latter are calculated to terminate or suspend them.

As there may be falsehoods without lies, so there may be lies without literal or direct falsehood. An openiug is always left for this species of prevarication, where the literal and grammatical signification of a sentence is different from the customary meaning. It is the wilful deceit that makes the lie.; and we wilfully deceive when our expressions are not true in the sense in which we believe the hearer apprehends them. Besides, it is absurd to contend for any sense of words in opposition to usage; for all senses of words are founded on usage and nothing else. A man may also act a lie; as by pointing his finger in a wrong direction when a traveler inquires of him his road; or where a tradesman shuts up his windows, to induce his creditors to believe that he is abroad; for to all moral purposes, and therefore as to veracity, speech and action are the same, speech being only a mode of action.

Scripture tells us that Ananias and his wife were struck dead for telling a lie in their own interest; and the Lord abhors a lie; or him that makes a lie; it ascribes the paternity of lies to the Devil himself; and it warns all liars that none of them can enter into the Kingdom of Heaven. No discreet man, no man accustomed to good society will ever indulge in the degrading vice of lying; and no man who values his own salvation in the world to come, will ever invent or circulate malicious lies, with the wicked intention of injuring his neighbor, or of promoting thereby, his own worldly interests or ambition.

The Republic of France.—Will the Republic of France be maintained, is a question upon the decision of which hangs the fate of many of the European monarchies. It is impossible to speak with any degree of certainty in regard to its future destiny. There is in the minds of many doubts, existing as to the stability of character and the sufficient advancement, of the mass of the people, in knowledge and civilization to settle down permanently under a republican form of government. The elements that are mingled with the lower class of Paris, when stirred up and called out, by some aspiring leader, is enough in itself to break down any form of government, however liberal or democratic it may be. The first revolution in France is still vividly impressed upon the minds of many. The scenes of horror enacted during that struggle were stamped upon the age in characters of blood, Napolean having made his appearance, numerous changes took place, until the great Corsican was overthrown, became a prisoner and an exile, and a monarchy was re-established in France. The second revolution resulted in the dethronement of Charles X., and the elevation of Louis Philippe to the throne. The people were no better satisfied under his reign than they had been before; and gradually the dissatisfaction increased, the feeling of discontent had become general, and when the government attempted to put down political meetings and suppress the right of discussions, the pent up passions of the mass burst forth, the King was dethroned, and on the ruins of the kingdom a Republic has been established. These three revolutions have occurred within the space of sixty years, and tends to show that the mass of the French people are fickle minded, and wanting in stability of character. It remains to be seen whether Lamartine will be able to retain his present influence, or whether he be crushed by the intrigues apd enmity of political demagogues. Should Lamartine fall, and France be deprived of the counsels of his mighty intellect, we believe in his fall the French Republic would also sink.

Magnanimity.—Magnanimity denotes greatness of mind, particularly in circumstances of trial and adversity. It has been justly observed that it is pride in the good sense, and the noblest way of acquiring applause. It renders the soul superior to the trouble, disorder and emotion which the appearance of great changes might excite; and it is by this quality that heroes maintain their tranquility, and preserve the free use of their reason amidst the most dreadful accidents. It admires the same quality even in an enemy; and fame, glory, conquests, desire of opportunities to pardon and oblige their opponents, are the emotions which gleam in the minds of the base. No man can ever gain fame, or glory, by a want of magnanimity.

To flee or not to flee.—Whether it be better for the foreigners to flee the country, or call for protection from some foreign power, on account of the charges in the Sandwich Island News, is *the question*. If the editor of the News had accepted the $200 which *he says* was offered for his *integrity*, he might have adopted the former course, but as it is we advise him to get under the protective wing of some one, 'where rumours of oppression' may never reach him more, and while there see if he cannot get up *another original* tune to whistle.

☞ H. B. M.'s surveying barque Plover, 42 days from Callao, arrived on the 23d, and sailed again on the 25th. The Plover goes direct to Kotzebue's Sound, N. W. Coast. She is one of the vessels sent out by the British Admiralty, in search of the expedition, to the Arctic regions, of Sir John Franklin.

EUROPEAN NEWS.

By the arrival of the 'Julian,' 52 days from China, we have received dates from Europe up to April 24th, which is not so late as those received by the Independence. Through the politeness of H. Skinner, Esq., we are in possession of the London Times of April 24th, and the Singapore Times, Extra, of June 7th, from which papers we gather a few items of news not heretofore given.

The most important news is the war between the Danes and Germans. There had been some hard fighting, and the Danes had called upon England to assist them in their conflict with the Germans.

A collision had taken place between the Danes and Germans at Flensburg, in which the Danes were victorious.

We gather the following particulars from the London Times:

"Later accounts of the affair between the Danes and the Holstein troops on the 10th April, show it to have been important. The Holsteners, 10,000 strong, retired on Bau, from Flensburg, dislodged by the preparations for a bombardment from the harbor, which was full of Danish gun-boats. But the Danes came on in superior numbers and drove all before them, despite a stubborn resistance. Two German regiments were almost annihilated; and the killed on both sides were more than two thousand. After their victory the Danes pushed southwards, and entered Schleswig at two in the morning of the 11th. The Danish troops in Schleswig are now 20,000. The Prussians remain on the Holstein frontier, increasing their numbers.

It appears that the students were completely sacrificed in consequence of the ill-judged military position assigned to them. Upwards of 700 were taken prisoners by the Danes; and 121 of them have arrived at Copenhagen, where they await their trial. The number of killed and wounded is considerable, but no exact account has yet been procured. The Danish cavalry spared as many as they could. The Rendsburghers say that they were betrayed by the peasantry, who made signals to the Danes in advance of them."

Much anxiety is felt on all sides for the declaration of the English Government respecting the Holstein-Schleswig question.

Fear was entertained in Hamborg that the Danes will blockade the Elbe against all except English ships. The government of Hamburg has endeavored, as far as possible, to remain neutral; but belonging to the Confederation, the senate cannot avoid contributing a contingent of troops to the amount of 1,298 men. The inhabitants have already violated the pretended neutrality by organizing a free corps of 150 men for the relief of the Holsteiners.

Latest letters from Hamburg state that the Danish and Prussian armies were then standing in hostile position, and it was expected that a battle would be fought on the 23d April.

It had been agreed by the German states that a national assembly or parliament for all Germany should meet in Frankfort on May 1st. It is stated that the German-Russian provinces are sympathizing with the movement in central Germany. Prussia is still resolved to rescue Holstein from the Danes. A dreadful revolt broke out at Cassel and other places.

The German flag, black, red and gold, had been adopted by the German diet, and was seen waving everywhere throughout Germany.

The Danish ministry has ordered the detention of all Prussian vessels now in Danish ports, and the navy has orders to seize all Prussian ships.

In Sweden the public feeling is strongly in favor of Denmark; and a body of Swedish students have petitioned the government for permission to join the Danish army.

From Italy we have dates to April 24th. The Provisional Government of Milan had decreed the suppression of the Jesuits and the confiscation of their property. Lombardy is no longer a part of Austria. At Naples the elections had gone off well; the parliament was to meet May 1st. Beyond the walls of Palermo all is described as anarchy and rapine.

The Zeitungs Halle, of the 6th of April, contains letters stating that Count Monteculi has left Vienna to propose peace to Lombardy; yielding its independence on an engagement to bear a proportion of the Austrian debt. But war was to be continued strenuously with Charles Albert, and to be declared against the Pope, and Grand Duke of Tuscany, whose representatives had received their passports and left Vienna.

The Milan Official bulletin of April 8th, says:

"That Peschiera has surrendered to the Piedmontese troops, and that the communication between Mantua and Verona was cut off. The governor of Mantua has ordered all the inhabitants to yield up their arms, and pay a contribution of four millions of livres. The Austrian forces will find great difficulty in penetrating that part of Italy, as Friuli is well guarded. The province of Brescia has been entirely evacuated by the Austrians. A battle took place between those troops and the Piedmontese rear guard near Chiese. The Austrians lost 50 killed and 600 prisoners."

The Emperor and Empress of Austria, with the Archdukes, returned to Vienna from Presburg on the 11th of April. The Emperor has written an autograph letter to Count Radetzky, a letter full of approval of his course.

The Archduke Francis Joseph, who is not quite eighteen years of age, the eldest son of the heir presumptive to the throne, has been appointed statthalter of Bohemia.

Sardinia has solicited the aid of 10,000 Swiss to serve against Austria in Italy. The Provisional Government of Milan is well supported; the taxes being payable in advance, and many subsidies being volunteered. The Piedmontese crossed the Mincio near Mantua, to force General Durando against Radetzky. 30,000 stand of arms had been received from France.

From Berlin we have news to April 20th, at which date order was restored. The election-petition-demonstration which was to have taken place at 2 P. M. on that day, did not come off—the committee, "to save the effusion of blood," postponed it.

On March 22d, General Narvaez, in the name of the Queen, closed the cortes, suspended the constitution, and declared Madrid to be in a state of siege. In every street there was fighting. Narvaez declared himself dictator.

It is stated in papers from the Hague; that the governor-general of the Dutch East Indies has been authorized to declare Menado at Celebes, a free port.

It may be stated for the information of foreigners, that no traveller, whether by steamer, railroad, or diligence, will now be admitted into Holland without a passport, hitherto not required.